

NEEDED RESEARCH ON THE BLACK POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES OF
AMERICA: VIA AN EXAMINATION AND EVALUATION OF DEMOGRAPHY

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BY
JUANITA BOOKER

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY

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ABSTRACT

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BOOKER, JUANITA

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Needed Research on the Black Population of the United States of
America: Via An Examination and Evaluation of Demography

Adviser: Professor John D. Reid

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This thesis reveals that there is a need for more research on the black population of the United States of America, which applies a demographic approach of analysis.

An examination and evaluation of the journal, Demography, 1964-1975 disclosed forty-one articles, specifically related to American Blacks. Each of the selected articles was annotated.

The major conclusion that can be drawn from this thesis is that researchers must develop more creative and innovative approaches to research if a completer picture of the American Black population is to be obtainable.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

It is the hope of the investigator that this intensive examination of Demography, 1964-1975, will be a vehicle stimulating more research on the American Black population. Past efforts to research this the largest American ethnic minority have been and remain to be confined to a rather limited number and type of study. A preponderance of literature has been written on the black family--its breakdown, disorganization and disruption. Yet, few authors have successfully dealt with and mastered the mechanics of exploring and interpreting the inner workings of the black man in America. E. Franklin Frazier and W. E. B. DuBois belonged to that select few, who were pioneers that observed and documented the social condition of the American Black on a daily basis. These early efforts are of redeeming social value and are very much applicable today, as is evidenced by contemporary authors' references to the work of Frazier and DuBois.

Research at present is employing more demographic tools. Through its enduring search for answers, it analyzes vital statistics on human populations. As a discipline, demography is crucial if a better understanding of social phenomena is to be obtainable. A first-cousin of "population study," it is a specialized field that has prompted the national and special censuses, registration of births and deaths and

advocated population projections for planning purposes. Demographers are statisticians who study the structure of the population, population growth and decline and how population is distributed spatially. Their work is a preserving task of scrutinizing demographic processes, such as fertility, migration, mortality to cite rates and changes in occurrences, in order to assess population status and forecast trends. Organizations, like the Population Association of America, which also publishes Demography, the journal for this inquiry, have been instrumental in promoting interchange of techniques and methods between specialists, practitioners, researchers and laymen. These professional affiliations are prerequisites, if demographers are to extend the existing body of empirical knowledge for interdisciplinary application.

Purpose and Scope

The purpose of this study is to determine the areas of needed research on the American Black population. This will encompass an examination and evaluation of Demography, 1964-1975, in order that a projection of these needs can be obtained. This study will also serve a dual purpose by showing where Demography's present research on this topic has strength and where weaknesses lie.

Methodology

An annotated bibliography of selected articles concerning the U. S. Black population was compiled from articles contained in the journal, Demography published between 1964 and 1975. The cumulative index of Demography,¹ 1964-1973 and the 1964-1975 volumes of Demography

¹Demography, cumulative index, 1964-1973 (Washington, D. C.: Population Association of America), 1974.

were consulted for this exposition. Forty-one articles, which pertained to research on the U. S. Black population or some aspect of this population, were read and bibliographic information was recorded for each entry. A concise commentary was provided for each. In the ensuing chapters, fertility, migration, mortality and miscellaneous respectively, each article was classified. The articles were alphabetized in each chapter by author's surname.

Limitations of the Study

This probe is restricted to articles published in Demography between 1964 and 1975 on the United States' black population or a subset of this population. As an exploratory exercise, this study serves only as an indicator to facilitate the task ahead in meeting research needs on the American Black. But, this exercise, although limited to one journal, is vital to and a necessary step in assessing and projecting those areas of need.

CHAPTER II

FERTILITY

The miracle of birth and perpetuation of life is an event that is more spectacular with each occurrence. But, procreation which was once considered a spontaneous act independent of outside influences may just be succumbing to social and economic pressures of the 1970's in the United States. Since the nineteenth century, the U. S. fertility rate has experienced constant decline.

American women's changing roles in the society are resulting in attitudinal changes toward family planning, more effective contraceptive method usage, limiting family size, spacing children, opting for abortions and more are securing general knowledge of birth control and population control through literature and programs. "Despite the increase in women of childbearing age, the total fertility rate dropped to 1.8 children in 1975," according to the U. S. Census Bureau. "Black children under 5 years declined by 4.8 per cent during 1970-76, whereas the rate for all U. S. children under 5 years showed a decline of 10.6 per cent (1.8 million)."¹ Declines in the number of children and adolescents will have far-reaching effects for school systems and industries that previously consumed this market in the future. "Marital status affects

¹U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1977, Age Structure of the Population, by Race: July 1, 1976 to April 1, 1970, Social and Economic Statistics Administration, CB 77-27, Feb. 11, 1977 (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office), p. 2.

population growth directly. There can be little doubt that a major reason for the great legal and religious concern about marital status is its implication for group survival through childbearing."¹

Whether the "potential mother," who may be married or non-married, avails herself of these family planning facilities or not, they are alternatives at her disposal. Awareness of these previously mentioned alternatives has and indeed does appeal to women who want to avoid unwanted pregnancies and control their family's size. "The National Fertility Surveys of 1965 and 1970 show that the risk of having an unwanted child declined by 47 percent among recently married Black women and by 40 percent among comparable white women between the years 1960-65 and 1965-70."² For the unmarried sexually active female, the availability of contraceptive technique greatly reduces the fear and likelihood of an unwanted pregnancy or venereal diseases.

"Probably the most unique feature of Black fertility is its unusually heavy concentration at the younger childbearing ages."³ "The high fertility of Black Americans at the younger ages is closely related to the relatively high number of births occurring to unmarried women. At ages under 20, for example, approximately 69 percent of the births in 1972 occurred to women who were not yet married."⁴ "For both Black and

¹ Donald J. Bogue, Principles of Demography (New York, 1969), p. 312.

² Arthur A. Campbell, The Fertility of the Black Population of the United States (Atlanta: W. E. B. DuBois Institute for the Study of the American Black, 1974), p. 8.

³ Ibid., p. 22.

⁴ Ibid., p. 13.

white women, fertility in low-income areas is higher than that in other areas."¹

"The highest fertility among the Negro, as among the white population, is found among couples who are leading a conventional family life--married only once and living with spouse."² Socioeconomic groups that have a tendency to marry late or not marry late or not marry at all may be expected to have a low overall level of fertility. Conversely, groups that tend to marry early and where a high percentage tend to marry may be expected to have unusually high fertility. In other words, marital status or differences in marital status are a factor of substantial importance in the study of differential fertility."³

"Groups with more education and those with less education are both more fertile. Women with less than a high school education tend to be highly fertile during their teens (if they are married) and also during their twenties, but tend to curtail fertility in their thirties. College women, on the other hand, postpone childbearing until they have completed schooling. They make up for this by extraordinarily high rates of fertility at ages up to age 30."⁴ "In the cohorts of 1930-34, for example, college-educated Black women reported an average of 2.5 births in the 1970 Census, compared with 2.8 for comparable white women."⁵

¹ Ibid., p. 22.

² Bogue, Principles of Demography, p. 691.

³ Ibid., p. 691.

⁴ Ibid., p. 711.

⁵ Campbell, The Fertility of the Black Population of the United States, p. 18.

Family planning measures are often adopted and used in conjunction with a couple's usual contraceptive method to reduce the probability of pregnancy. Such practices are common to Blacks in middle and later stage of life cycle and particularly for Black college-educated women. Forgone and delayed births have been instrumental in aiding these groups to achieve higher status, by directing their energies toward the pursuit of additional socioeconomic opportunities. Generally, black women in higher economic echelons have fewer children even when compared to white women. "Fertility rates are much higher among couples with less education and lower income than among others."¹

"Natality appears to be definitely linked to occupational status and even to specific occupations. Yet the relationship is not simply one of socioeconomic status; the occupations with lowest natality are in the lower white-collar group, while upper white-collar families occupy a middle position."² "A part of the higher fertility level of Negroes in comparison with whites is attributable to difference in age and education. However, when both of these factors are controlled, Negroes still have a level of natality that is 25 percent above the national average."³ "The fertility of the Black population has been consistently higher than that of most populations in the developed world, although not as high as some."⁴

¹ Ibid., p. 23.

² Bogue, Principles of Demography, p. 700.

³ Ibid., p. 718.

⁴ Campbell, The Fertility of the Black Population of the United States, p. 22.

"In the decade 1970-1980, the Census Bureau has projected an increase of 32 percent for nonwhite women of reproductive age and only 21 percent for comparable white women. Thus, the reproductive potential of the nonwhite population is considerably greater in the near future than is that for the white population."¹

¹Ibid., p. 16.

FERTILITY

Bauman, Karl E. "The Poor As a 'Perfect Contraceptive Population' and Zero Population Growth." Demography 9 (August 1972): 507-510.

In a persistent effort to restrict population growth, the federal government subsidizes birth control programs and population control. Some demographers doubt that these efforts, even if rigidly enforced, will preserve zero population growth.

Bauman, Karl E. and Udry, J. Richard. "The Difference in Unwanted Births Between Blacks and Whites." Demography 10 (August 1973): 315-328.

Comparing 1965 and 1970 fertility studies, program implementation and findings are discussed. Unwanted births are more prevalent among blacks than whites. In 17 family planning evaluation cities, the data specifies black-white differentials were due to: (1) blacks wanted fewer children, (2) blacks less frequently than whites use nonphysician-administered contraceptives, but even more often than whites used nothing and (3) black still had a higher failure rate after adopting physician-administered contraceptives and when using no method.

Bean, Frank D. and Wood, Charles H. "Ethnic Variations In The Relationship Between Income And Fertility." Demography 11 (November 1974): 629-640.

Scrutinizes Black, Anglo and Mexican American husbands to ascertain if his potential and relative incomes affects natality rate. Data were restricted to five states using the one-percent sample of 1960 and 1970 U. S. Public Use Samples. The average black birth rate resembled the Anglo rate more than the Mexican Americans. Different patterns exist between all races with regard to income measures and fertility. These findings are tentative and may not be applied to the general population since not all age cohorts were studied.

Ben-Porath, Yoram. "First-Generation Effects On Second-Generation Fertility." Demography 12 (August 1975): 397-405.

The fertility pattern and preferences of one generation influence the next generation's family size, as well as has a definite input into fertility taste for unborn generations. Questionnaire data from The Survey Research Center's 1968-1970 Panel Study of Income Dynamics support this finding.

Bogue, Donald J.; Misra, Bhaskar D.; and Dandekar, D. P. "A New Estimate of the Negro Population and Negro Vital Rates in the United States, 1930-1960." Demography 1 (1964): 339-358.

The author attempts to reconstruct Negro population for 1930-1960 by generating four assumptions. Past estimates of this group lacked completeness in coverage, especially compared with more

detailed information secured from whites of the same sex and age. Age heaping, underenumeration of Negro males and inflated estimates are common. Beware of the validity of each initial assumption, before accepting the new estimates as better.

Cho, Lee-Jay. "Income and Differentials In Current Fertility." Demography 5 (1) (1968): 198-211.

Census data for 1960 are employed to scrutinize fertility disparity using preciser present fertility. Fertility patterns for black and white women, urban and rural women and women in the labor force versus non-labor force women are examined. Results concur that as the Negro's income rises his fertility pattern approximates the white pattern.

Davidson, Maria. "Expectations of Additional Children By Race, Parity, And Selected Socio-Economic Characteristics, United States: 1967." Demography 8 (February 1971): 27-36.

Surveys 30,000 households trying to identify fertility expectations of wives by selected economic, social and demographic features. Within the next five years, the number of children expected by each wife is inversely associated to the number of completed pregnancies.

Eblen, Jack Ericson. "New Estimates of the Vital Rates of the United States Black Population During the Nineteenth Century." Demography 11 (May 1974): 301-319.

The author develops a methodology for deriving more reliable estimates of vital rates for the United States' black population up to the nineteenth century. Through interchange of systems of mortality rates with each chief mortality level, he generates new estimates of the black population. His findings concur with other researchers' life tables for this period.

Farley, Reynolds. "Recent Changes in Negro Fertility." Demography 3 (1) (1966): 188-203.

Black birth rates for specific age groups are compared with other cohorts. The author explains the impact urbanization, socioeconomic advances and the Depression have had on fluctuating birth rates for blacks.

Farley, Reynolds. "The Quality of Demographic Data for Non-Whites." Demography 5 (1) (1968): 1-10.

Cites enumeration problems among non-whites and whites after comparing prior census data with vital statistics. Procedural lack of uniformity effected distorted birth years and ages. Non-whites were more uncertain of age, lied about educational level and misrepresented marital status and income. Inaccurate counts fostered invalid interpretations, especially for non-white males. Special methods, publicity, structural census changes and tracing a sampling of non-white males from 1960-1970 are suggested for improving census data.

Siegel, Jacob S. "Estimates of Coverage of the Population By Sex, Race and Age in the 1970 Census." Demography 11 (February 1974): 1-23.

Several options are shown for deriving estimates of total net underenumeration and of net census errors by race, age, and sex. This is a statistical manipulation of data from the 1960 and 1970 Censuses, where the findings are cited as "preferred" sets of estimates. Estimates are based on adjusted and unadjusted data. Census coverage has improved, yet the amount of population undercount will be a heated target as more public funding is based on areal population size.

Udry, J. Richard and Bauman, Karl E. "Effect on Unwanted Fertility of Extending Physician-Administered Birth Control In The United States." Demography 11 (May 1974): 189-194.

Government sponsored family planning programs aim at a minimum of unwanted births via better physician-administered contraception (PAC) for low-income families. The data, from a selective sampling of low-income households, indicate that physician administered contraception curtailed unwanted births by 80 percent. PAC reduces unwanted births 79 percent for blacks and 83 percent for whites.

Weisbord, Robert G. "Birth Control and The Black American: A Matter of Genocide?" Demography 10 (November 1973): 571-590.

Pro and con proponents of "birth control" and "population control" discuss possible outcomes of containing black population growth. Beginning with slavery, a historical presentation of white attitudes toward black population growth is developed. Black men under age 30 usually support the premise that birth control has racial overtones. W. E. B. DuBois, E. Franklin Frazier and some contemporaries hold that the benefits of producing quality children exceeds benefits derived from increased numbers. Both sides are suspicious of birth control programs and contraceptives aimed at exclusive black use. No estimate is given for blacks using these facilities.

Zelnik, Melvin. "An Evaluation of New Estimates of the Negro Population." Demography 2 (1965): 630-639.

The author critiques the suggested procedure of Bogue, Misra and Dandekar for yielding estimates of the Negro population in 1930-1960. Zelnik finds some of the techniques rather dubious.

CHAPTER III

MIGRATION

Migration has been and currently persists as a privilege man enjoys. Humans generally move (1) when they deem such an action will better their condition, (2) when they are dissatisfied with their present circumstances and (3) when forced to by unforeseen changes in those circumstances, like unemployment. Fortunately or unfortunately, whichever is appropriate, the Black American's decision to move has historically been the product of all three factors in varied degrees.

Principally located in the South's rural areas prior to World War I, the Black American became an urban creature as the South's agrarian economy evolved into a highly developed, mechanized farming operation with textile and manufacturing industries. These drastic changes in type of industry resulted in Blacks migrating to live where employment was more abundant for the semi-skilled and the least skilled worker. "It is not until 1960 that the majority of urban blacks were enumerated as living outside the South, and the 1960-70 period is the first in which less than a third of the total urban increase was accounted for by the South."¹ "In 1970 more than 60 percent of the black population was concentrated in 90 metropolitan counties."² "Black migrants to metropolitan areas now

¹Ann R. Miller, The Black Migrant: Changing Origins, Changing Characteristics (Atlanta: W. E. B. DuBois Institute for the Study of the American Black, 1974), p. 3.

²Edward E. Cahill, Social Relevance of Recent Residence and

come predominantly from other metropolitan areas and of that the major stream of black migration is now from one metropolitan area to another."¹

"The central cities tend to have a much higher proportion of Negro population than do the rings."²

"Migration tends to be selective of persons with particular characteristics (the young, the better educated, the unmarried, etc.). Selective migration, therefore, helps to determine the spatial pattern of differences between communities in population composition and in the change in population composition that communities undergo."³ "The migration of blacks out of the South has clearly been selective of the best educated, and of this group it is possible that the least capable returned, leaving in the North a very able and determined group of migrants. The long-term migrants may thus be "doubly selected"—first as they originally left the South and again as some returned. This possibility has been suggested by Long and Heltman (1975), Lieberman and Wilkinson (1976), and Hogan and Hogan and Featherman (1976)."⁴ "In 1970, over 22 percent of blacks ages

Occupational Shifts of Blacks, paper presented at the 1974 meeting of the Rural Sociology section of the Southern Association of Agricultural Scientists, Memphis, Tenn., February 3-6, 1974.

¹ Miller, The Black Migrant: Changing Origins, Changing Characteristics, pp. 23, 25.

² Donald J. Bogue, Principles of Demography (New York, 1969), pp. 535-536.

³ Ibid., p. 753.

⁴ Larry H. Long and Kristin A. Hansen, Selectivity of Black Return Migration to the South, paper presented at the annual meeting of the Southern Sociological Society, Atlanta, Ga., March 31, 1977.

20-24 reported that they had changed their place of residence since 1965, as compared to less than 4 percent of those aged 55 or more."¹ "First" migrants--those leaving their state of birth between 1965 and 1970--are a highly selected group through age 44; in fact, among the youngest workers they are (marginally) the most selected. There is some indication that completion of four years of college is a crucial point at which people leave their state of birth, and this may explain the high proportion for males aged 16-24."²

"For outmigration from the South, the most highly educated blacks at ages 25 to 34 were about 3 1/2 to 4 times more likely to engage in this movement than those with the lowest educational level. For return migration, the ratio is slightly less, indicating a somewhat lower degree of selectivity. Although these data indicate that the degree of educational selectivity is greater for initial outmigration than for return migration, the important conclusion is that both migration flows have been highly selective of the best educated."³ "Black women often have somewhat lower rates of outmigration than black men."⁴ "The degree of selectivity of black outmigration and return migration according to level of education did not change between 1955-60 and 1965-70. In both periods of time, black returnees had higher levels of education than the initial

¹Miller, The Black Migrant: Changing Origins, Changing Characteristics, p. 9.

²Ann R. Miller, "Interstate Migrants in the United States: Some Social-Economic Differences By Type of Move," Demography 14 (February 1977): 12.

³Long and Hansen, Selectivity of Black Return Migration to the South, pp. 9-10.

⁴Ibid., p. 10.

outmigrants, who had higher levels of education than blacks who did not leave the South."¹

"Regardless of age and education, black returnees were almost always more likely than white returnees to go to a metropolitan area."² This return flux of blacks to the South, currently termed "revitalization of the South," characterizes a highly selective group of blacks migrating to its metropolitan areas.

A substantial and perhaps growing part of interstate migration over a limited (five-year) time interval is accounted for by persons who are moving to at least their third state of residence; and that these "chronic movers" are a highly selected group, with educational levels and occupational status (for those who are employed) far above the average for the population as a whole, and also above the average for the average for all migrants.

A second component of the flow of migrants over the five-year period consists of persons returning to their state of birth. These "return migrants" differ markedly from the "chronic movers," for they are essentially a random selection of those who have previously left their state of birth, both with regard to education and with regard to occupation (for the employed).

The third component identified, persons leaving their state of birth, are, like the "chronic movers," characterized by high levels of educational attainment and occupational status. But the rates of migration for these "first migrants," are generally substantially lower than those for "chronic movers."³

¹ Ibid., pp. 18-19.

² Ibid., p. 12.

³ Miller, "Interstate Migrants in the United States: Some Social-Economic Differences By Type of Move," p. 14.

"The black population is now so overwhelmingly urban, metropolitan in residence, the remaining rural, nonmetropolitan pool is so small, that we can anticipate only further increases in the dominance of the intermetropolitan stream among the black migrants."¹

¹Miller, The Black Migrant: Changing Origins, Changing Characteristics, p. 9.

MIGRATION

Clemence, Theodore G. "Residential Segregation In the Mid-Sixties." Demography 4 (2) (1967): 562-568.

An analysis is made of the racial composition of ten selected cities with a 100,000 plus population. Data from a special mid-decade census and the 1960 census are compared to determine population change, rate of change and residential segregation. Since 1960, white residences in the city have constantly declined. Blacks compose the inner city. More blacks move to the central cities of urbanized areas, while "white flight" to the suburbs occurs at an even higher rate. Examining census tracts in the city, black and white residential areas are easily identified.

Duncan, Otis Dudley. "Patterns of Occupational Mobility Among Negro Men." Demography 5 (1) (1968): 11-22.

This is a 1962 Census survey of men 25-64 gauging occupational mobility, both inter- and intragenerational. A non-Negro father's occupation had more impact on his son's occupational entry level, than that of a Negro father. Key to this result was the former's higher socioeconomic status, . . . and background. Negroes from lower socioeconomic groups made up a larger percentage of middle-class employment, than Negroes whose fathers had an upper occupational level.

Edwards, Ozzie L. "Patterns of Residential Segregation Within A Metropolitan Ghetto." Demography 7 (May 1970): 185-193.

Measures residential segregation within an urban black ghetto, Milwaukee. Black and white families of the same economic status and stage of family cycle imitate similar residential patterns. Class segregation is stronger than racial segregation for both races. Residential segregation is dictated by the income level of each family.

Greenwood, Michael J. and Gormely, Patrick J. "A Composition of the Determinants of White and Non-White Interstate Migration." Demography 8 (February 1971): 141-155.

For 1955-1960, the author presents a rationale on the interstate migratory flow of whites and nonwhites. Distance, population, income and temperature are cited as four explanatory variables in this discourse. The data for this work are obtained from the 1960 U.S. Census. For the most part, distance impeded both white and nonwhite migration. Both moved to high-income areas and where their race lived in large concentrations. Whites moved to warm locales, whereas blacks showed no such preference.

Hamilton, C. Horace. "The Negro Leaves the South." Demography 1 (1964): 273-295.

Effects of Negro migration from the South are discussed through a historical progression of industries in the region and in the non-South. Fertility was a tool used by cotton planters guaranteeing cheap labor, thusly having a huge impact on the Negro's social and economic development. As industry changed, inter- and intramigration became vehicles for survival and upward mobility for Negroes. Relocation in concentrated urban areas offered unskilled and semi-skilled jobs for many.

Long, Larry H. and Hansen, Kristin A. "Trends In Return Migration To The South." Demography 12 (November 1975): 601-614.

Trends indicate the South's upsurge in population are due to (1) declining outmigration by natives and (2) the region is attracting more non-Southerners. Southern blacks return at a faster rate than Southern whites, yet whites return in large numbers. This trend has been consistent since 1950-1970's. Job opportunities appeal to returning whites, while blacks return out of desire.

Powers, Mary G. "Class Ethnicity, and Residence In Metropolitan America." Demography 5 (1) (1968): 443-448.

This study examines the socioeconomic status of a few ethnic groups trying to associate residential patterns. Does socioeconomic status score, a condensing measure of occupation, education and family income, have any significance in determining city or suburban residence among these groups?

Pozner, Arlyne I. "Forensic Demography and Civil Rights." Demography 4 (1) (1967): 351-359.

The Department of Justice began litigation against the Mississippi Board of Education concerning a law (Senate Bill 1516) forcing children residing in the state without their parents to pay tuition to attend public schools. Believing the law unconstitutional and discriminatory, the NAACP enlisted the aid of the Census Bureau and demographers to prove specific low-income and racial groups were affected--primarily the poor and blacks.

Schnore, Leo F. "Social Class Segregation Among Nonwhites In Metropolitan Centers." Demography 2 (1965): 126-133.

In this essay class segregation is a strong bond designating degree of residential segregation among nonwhites in a metropolitan area. This finding supports E. W. Burgess' concentric zone theory. Since regional variations do occur, no one model of residential patterns is applicable for all areas in southern cities. Atlanta is such a case.

Stinner, William F. and DeJong, Gordon F. "Southern Negro Migration: Social and Economic Components of An Ecological Model." Demography 6 (November 1969): 455-469.

This is a test of strength of relationship between social and

economic characteristics of Negro males migrating among 150 southern counties. Multiple regression analysis is used to test the intensity of the characteristics at various age groups. Major factors for moving were the dominance of changing means of secondary industrial employment, the declining number of nonwhites on rural-farms and a downward trend in white traditionalism.

Sweet, James A. "The Living Arrangements of Separated, Widowed and Divorced Mothers." Demography 9 (February 1972): 143-157.

Investigates the living arrangements of divorced, widowed and separated mothers using the 1/1000 sample of the 1960 Census. Discusses the effect mother's age, education, age and number of children. . . etc., have on her heading a household or choosing another option. Eighty percent of these women with children under 18 are household heads. This reflects both black and white females.

Van Arsdol, Maurice D., Jr. and Schuerman, Leo A. "Redistribution and Assimilation of Ethnic Populations: The Los Angeles Case." Demography 8 (November 1971): 459-480.

Ethnicity in Los Angeles County, 1940-1960, is examined. Topics covered include aggregation and expansion, segregation and dissimilarity indices and characteristics of changing neighborhoods, etc.

Woofter, T. J. "Migration in the Southeast." Demography 4 (1967): 532-552.

Looks at the impact that demographic and economic changes have had on the Southeast region which includes Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia and South Carolina. From 1940 to 1960, commerce, industry and natural resources have effected more females employed, more occupational changes for blacks and fewer blacks in the region. Mechanized agriculture has substantially affected lifestyle. Changes in regional priorities have resulted in changes in occupation, mate preference and residence.

CHAPTER IV

MORTALITY

Death is a reality man has not yet managed to escape--not even with technological advancement. But, medical and scientific investigations have enabled him to prolong his longevity, tremendously. This is apparent when comparing survival rates of previous generations. "Black females today have realized the Biblical promise and have an average length of life of 70 years, eight years more than their male counterparts. A similar difference is found among whites."¹ However, amidst the elevating of the human environment, there still exist much inequity and many inequalities in opportunities among black and white Americans. It is this difference in "life chances," which presumably is best demographically quantified, that ultimately determines a black American's survival status.

For all of the major groupings of causes of death, save one, blacks have relatively high rates. Blacks are more likely than the general population to die from heart attacks or from strokes. Though a darker skin protects against skin cancer, neoplasms in general claim more black than white victims. One of the mysteries of modern medicine is the great incidence of hypertension among American blacks. Infectious diseases, once the greatest killer of blacks are no longer of such importance, but influenza and pneumonia still wreak havoc, as do venereal disease. Of special importance to blacks are accidents and homicide, the latter of which increases yearly. This one exception to this gloomy litany is suicide. Blacks, male or female, are still more reluctant than whites to perform this final act, but black rates of self destruction are moving toward those of whites.²

¹ John D. Reid and Everett S. Lee, Trends in Black Health (Atlanta: W. E. B. DuBois Institute for the Study of the American Black, 1977), p. 9.

² Ibid., pp. 1-2.

"Age by age, and almost cause by cause, death is more common among black males than among black females, in itself a deterrent to economic improvement."¹ "The sex differential in mortality has increased during the past decade, because what little improvement there has been in death control has almost all accrued to females."² "Presently, however, the excess mortality of males is considerable at ages 1-4 and from ages 5 to 45 the death rates for black males are two to three times those of black females."³

"Another major difference in the distribution of deaths by sex and race is the high incidence of deaths from violence among black males. No less than 16 percent of the deaths of black males are from accident, suicide, or homicide, and six percent are from homicide alone. For adolescents and young adults these proportions are several times higher. Almost a third of the deaths of black males aged 15-34 are due to homicide, and that is also true for about a sixth of deaths of black females of these ages."⁴ "The probability of dying from some sort of violent death is about 10 percent for black males and five percent for black females. For black males this exceeds the probability of death from all kinds of infectious disease, including the pneumonia which often follows surgery or other trauma."⁵

A sex ratio of 103 black males per 100 black females at birth indicates

¹Ibid., p. 2.

²Bogue, Principles of Demography, p. 594.

³Reid and Lee, Trends in Black Health, p. 18.

⁴Ibid., p. 14.

⁵Ibid., p. 15.

that the black male is an endangered species. The neonatal stage and the months approaching his first year of life partially account for his high mortality rate. "Although infant mortality tends to decrease when general mortality decreases, there are good reasons for giving it separate treatment. (1) In high-mortality populations it is the largest single age category of mortality: a large number of persons die during the first year of life than at any other age. Even in low mortality populations it is one of the largest single categories. It wields a strong influence in determining the life table values of expectation of life. (2) Death at this young age is due to a peculiar set of diseases and conditions to which the adult population is less exposed or less vulnerable. (3) Infant mortality may be affected rather quickly and directly by specific health programs, hence may change more rapidly than the general death rate. The infant mortality rate tends to vary more independently of mortality rates at older ages than the rates of older ages vary among themselves."¹

"The past ten years have seen a more rapid white than Black reduction in deaths from infections in infancy and childhood. There is every reason to believe that remaining racial differences could be rapidly reduced by appropriate use of medical services. For example, one of the earliest and most marked effects of the National Maternal and Infant Care Program has been a reduction in post-neonatal deaths, many being deaths from infections."² "If environment determines variations in death rates, it

¹Bogue, Principles of Demography, pp. 584-585.

²Maureen Henderson and Linda Cowan, Morbidity and Mortality in American Blacks (Atlanta: W. E. B. DuBois Institute for the Study of the American Black, 1974), p. 16.

does so either by causing differences in the incidence of fatal diseases or by mediating alterations in survival."¹

The urban environment appears to foster high infant mortality. The U. S. Children's Bureau has pointed out that only one of the eleven largest cities in the United States (Los Angeles) has an infant mortality rate lower than the national average. Instead of being healthful sites for infants to be born, many neighborhoods in cities are slums where low socioeconomic status is conducive to high infant mortality. A part, but possibly not all, of this is due to the differential medical services given to Negroes living in slums and the care that Negro mothers give their infants.²

"The infant death represents the loss not only of one person, but of the many descendants who could be traced to him had he lived."³

Longevity for blacks has increased, primarily because he has had some access to the benefits dispensed through the larger society. Among these social benefits are better public health care service, control or eradication of major infectious killers, sanitation facilities, better safety and housing standards and wider knowledge of social services.

"Some groups live in much less favorable environmental surroundings than others. Some groups have customs and practices that are debilitating to health."⁴ "The fact, is, of course, that death rates and health levels reflect social and economic conditions, and the most privileged are almost always the healthiest and the longest lived."⁵ "High socioeconomic status

¹ Ibid., p. 5.

² Bogue, Principles of Demography, p. 606.

³ Ibid., p. 549.

⁴ Ibid., p. 602.

⁵ Reid and Lee, Trends in Black Health, p. 18.

is definitely associated with above-average mortality."¹

"What has occasioned the enormous fall in the black death rate and the resultant increase in length of life? Quite simply it is the control of infectious disease."² Still, these benefits have not put blacks on equal footing with whites. "Blacks fall short of the white expectation of life by six years in the United States and have a long way to go to reach the levels established by Japanese Americans or by many Europeans."³

A long life is not enough--although it meets minimal survival standards. Narrowing the differential between white and black standards of living should be the black American's foremost priority, because it is that differential that determines the terms of his life and demise. The social and economic differential determines the alternatives accessible to him, his family and his descendants. It is this differential that makes the Black American family a high risk population susceptible to illnesses incurred due to occupational hazards, slower detection of fatal diseases, high crime areas, residential segregation and in general paying higher social costs for living, education, health, insurance and dying.

¹Bogue, Principles of Demography, p. 603.

²Reid and Lee, Trends in Black Health, p. 14.

³Ibid., p. 9.

MORTALITY

Demeny, Paul and Gingrich, Paul. "A Reconsideration of Negro-White Mortality Differentials in the United States." Demography 4 (2) (1967): 820-837.

Summarizes the results of a life-table series study on the validity of black-white mortality differentials. Black-white mortality levels are shown based on official and estimated figures. Due to errors in reporting ages, deficient birth and death registration, lack of detailed mortality schedules in earlier periods, the 1910-1940 early childhood mortality for blacks is vastly under-reported. Consequently, black-white differentials should be higher.

Jiobu, Robert M. "Urban Determinants of Racial Differentiation In Infant Mortality." Demography 9 (November 1972): 603-615.

Attempts to establish urban agents of racial differentiation in infant mortality. Does the socioeconomic gap between blacks and whites affect infant mortality rates? Using aggregate data and path analysis, the data confirm that neonatal mortality differentials are unaffected by socioeconomic differentials. Declining racial differences in hospitals, however, do expand neonatal mortality differentiation. Concludes that postneonatal differentiation is affected by diverging socioeconomic status when viewing city units.

Rao, S. L. N. "On Long-Term Mortality Trends in the United States, 1850-1968." Demography 10 (August 1973): 405-419.

Using three periods in the United States life tables, a comparison is made of mortality transition using phase-specific analysis instead of age-specific. Emphasized are demands for examining mortality variation in persons over age 50 from 1850-1968. Life expectancy for blacks has improved since 1850, however, it still lags behind the life expectancy for whites.

Shin, Eui Hang. "Black-White Differentials in Infant Mortality in the South, 1940-1970." Demography 12 (February 1975): 1-19.

Looks at the differences in infant mortality among southern blacks and whites for 1940-1970. In 1970, all the states studied showed a higher black-white rate of postneonatal mortality. Since 1940, better records have been kept on both races, however, black records still lack the same level of completeness as white records. Contrasting, records on ten selected southern states and seven northern states with a black concentration supports this. Blacks had less attending physicians, so deaths and births are often under-reported or misrepresented on their actual status. Among blacks, incompleteness of recording and/or lack attending physician or receiving hospital care at birth correlates with level of income.

CHAPTER V

MISCELLANEOUS

Incorporated in this chapter are articles that are interrelated with the demographic processes discussed in the previous chapters. These articles were categorized miscellaneous because their subjects are varied, yet all were important to the development of this topic.

MISCELLANEOUS

Carter, Hugh and Glick, Paul C. "Trends and Current Patterns of Marital Status Among Nonwhite Persons." Demography 3 (1) (1966): 276-288.

Contrasts trends in marital status for nonwhites and whites during a series of periods. Future research demands improving vital and census records for obtaining more detailed marital status characteristics. In so doing, trend analysis is easier.

Cortese, Charles F. and Leftwich, Judith E. "A Technique For Measuring the Effect of Economic Base on Opportunity for Blacks." Demography 12 (May 1975): 325-329.

The author introduces a technique known as the "differential opportunity ratio" that measures the effects of economic base on opportunity for blacks. He projects widespread acceptance of the measure because it is not influenced by the effects of national and local employment patterns, and therefore flexible for comparative studies.

Farley, Reynolds. "The Demographic Rates and Social Institutions of the Nineteenth-Century Negro Population: A Stable Population Analysis." Demography 2 (1965): 386-398.

This is an overview of the effects that society's social institutions have impinged on the demographic processes from slavery to contemporary times. Embedded in the discussion are the southern and northern views of slavery as an institution.

Farley, Reynolds and Hermalin, Albert. "The 1960s: A Decade of Progress For Blacks?" Demography 9 (August 1972): 353-370.

Compares the socioeconomic status of blacks and whites between 1960 and 1970. Though blacks and whites sustained gains in better employment, educational attainment and real purchasing power, the rate of these gains were higher for blacks. These improved indicators do not suggest complete removal of racial effects on socioeconomic status.

Hill, C. Russell. "Education, Health and Family Size as Determinants of Labor Market Activity For the Poor and Nonpoor." Demography 8 (August 1971): 379-388.

Examines what demographic factors promote white and black male participation in the labor force. Multivariate regression analysis is run on disaggregated data from the 1967 Survey of Economic Opportunity. Primary factors considered are the husband's and wife's educational level, health and the number of offspring under age 18. Results show these three factors are significant. Higher educational level has a positive effect on desirability to work for nonpoorheads. A black husband and wife work of necessity, while its white counterpart does not.

Huyck, Earl E. "White-Nonwhite Differentials: Overview and Implications." Demography 3 (1966): 548-565.

White and nonwhite differentials are summarized. A rationale is presented for segregating statistical records kept on white and nonwhite populations in the United States. His main thesis is that data of this type helps assess racial inequality and discrimination. Various factions debate the future socioeconomic implications of the differentials.

Loeb, Ruth. "A Study of Age at Remarriage: The District of Columbia, 1960-1961." Demography 5 (1) (1968): 311-317.

This is a probe of marriage assortment tendencies for black and white couples by investigating 1960-1961 marriage license applications in the Washington, D. C., SMSA. It views the re-married to ascertain differences in widowed and previously divorced persons.

Monahan, Thomas P. "Interracial Marriage: Data for Philadelphia and Pennsylvania." Demography 7 (August 1970): 287-299.

A comparison of interracial marriage in Philadelphia and Pennsylvania contrasting 1960-1962 and 1965-1966. Though the findings are inconclusive, it adds to present conjecture about the number of such unions. Data from marriage license applications indicate a 32 percent error in reporting mixed unions. About three out of four interracial marriages in Pennsylvania, excluding Philadelphia, involve nonwhite males. Interracial marriage in Philadelphia occurs at the lowest rate, which is ironic, because non-white concentration is highest here.

Price, Daniel O. "Educational Differentials Between Negroes and Whites in The South." Demography 5 (1) (1968): 23-33.

This is a 1940-1950 study of 11 southern states where the educational disparity between whites and nonwhites constantly arose. A pronounced educational gap is noted among rural farm area and this tendency occurs more often among males than females.

Schmid, Calvin F. and Nobbe, Charles E. "Socio-Economic Differentials Among Nonwhite Races in the State of Washington." Demography 2 (1965): 549-566.

Between 1940-1960, this comparison of nonwhite, Negroes, Japanese, Filipinos, Indians, Chinese and Caucasians ranks how successful the ethnic groups have advanced toward narrowing socioeconomic differentials in Washington State. A definite, steady trend of socio-economic footing exists among nonwhites. Since 1940, all races have experienced greater upward mobility in educational level, occupational status and income. In educational status, the Japanese rank highest. Negroes rank fourth. These same rankings apply to occupation.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Among the selected articles on the U. S. Black population, there were fourteen on fertility, four on mortality, thirteen on migration and ten were categorized miscellaneous. Over 500 articles were published in Demography during this period, but from 1964-1975 only 41 articles dealt exclusively with American Blacks. When blacks were discussed they were usually labelled nonwhites, which is a misnomer. "Nonwhites" refer to blacks as well as Japanese, Chinese and anyone who is not of Caucasian origin. The most common usage of the term "nonwhites" is linked with comparing whites. On the whole, there were more articles where blacks were referred to as nonwhites, than there were separate articles where the author's subject was addressing the U. S. Black population or some aspect of a subset of this population.

Even in articles discussing both black and white races, racial differentials were often lumped together in the author's conclusions. Thus, reading the summary would not suffice for gaining the totality of the author's research, nor the implications race may have produced. The articles affecting blacks had broad topics. There was little segregation of social and economic stratification in the articles pertaining to blacks. A subculture, such as blacks, operates on standards which are unique to this particular group; as well as having some characteristics which are

synonymous to the holistic culture. Subcultures have different mores concerning marriage, divorce, childbearing, family and lifestyle, etc. Examining the subculture's modus operandi yields more in-depth data (significant socioeconomic relationships) in the long run, than making superficial comparisons with the larger U. S. majority. More prevalent was a tendency, by the authors, to assume that generalizations or one comprehensive generalization was sufficient to draw a conclusion for all individuals in the racial category--Black. There is no monolithic race.

We would like for the articles in Demography to be more creative and innovative, and devise other types of categories that would more accurately classify the employment of blacks in the labor force. Since this minority has not been totally integrated into the labor force at all levels, the "traditional labelling," like white collar versus blue collar worker, do not function as a refined descriptive gauge for locating their status in the labor market.

Through the efforts of the Census Bureau and demographers, assembly of data is easier, yet more emphasis should be placed on assimilating and explaining the social condition on which the data were collected. We need to ascertain why a particular condition is common to this section of neighborhood A. We are talking about arriving at a specific cause or combination of variables that yield a characteristic associated with one area. Sophisticated data processing equipment, though rapid has not and will not dispense neatly packaged solutions.

More researchers ought to "test" their hypotheses, instead of taking a position, engaging in an emotional tirade and concluding with X's study

of 1920 and Y's theory of 1904 support my thesis. Often the existing conditions in the black family are ignored and explained by breakdown or disruption of the black family or with the habitual Negro's history, culture or marriage traditions. All of these terms are vague and carry individual connotations. Use terms that are relevant in the context in which you are speaking.

Continuous studies are needed to eliminate the generalizations, myths and erroneous information deduced from short-term projects, which were not even detailed enough so the procedure could be repeated. A number of these experiments cannot be replicated until the author denotes population size and discloses the exact techniques used. This would also aid the reader in drawing conclusions about the validity of the research findings. The resource of research funding for all work should be published.

Researchers need to examine closer visible and invisible under-employment among blacks. There is a lot of occupational movement that cannot be measured because the tools for measurement are not available. It is difficult to study persons not engaged in the labor force who may be retired, living on investments or receiving public assistance. More tracing and follow up are needed for measuring differential birth and death rates and marital dissolution. Full use of divorce decrees, present health, physician and hospital records are not being taken advantage of by researchers. More longitudinal demographic studies should be conducted on subpopulations of the American Black population to determine if a relationship continues, terminates or varies when examined in each designated group.

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